Formal Performance Guarantees for Behavior-based Localization Missions*

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***Abstract*— Localization and mapping algorithms can allow a robot to navigate well in an unknown environment. However, whether such algorithms enhance any specific robot mission is currently a matter for empirical validation. In this paper we apply our *MissionLab*/VIPARS mission design and verification approach to an autonomous robot mission that uses probabilistic localization software.**

Two approaches to modeling probabilistic localization for verification are presented: a high-level approach, and a sample-based approach which allows run-time code to be embedded in verification. Verification and experimental validation results are presented for two waypoint missions using each method, demonstrating the accuracy of verification, and both are compared with verification of an odometry-only mission, to show the mission-specific benefit of localization.

I. Introduction

One of the most impactful recent developments in robotics has been efficient mapping and localization algorithms [1]: Techniques whereby a robot can use information from its sensors to construct a map of its environment and, at the same time, determine its location with respect to this map. These tools can allow a robot to navigate more effectively in an environment of a-priori unknown geometry. However, whether such algorithms enhance any specific robot mission is currently a matter for empirical validation.

Formal verification can be used as a design tool to determine whether a piece of robot software will function as desired without having to execute the software physically. The field has made significant strides in recent years with the development of model-checking [2] and SMT engines [3]. However, it can at best produce an approximation of robot performance, due to the undecidability of the underlying verification problem. A crucial issue therefore in selecting a verification approach is to understand what aspects of the robot software problem to focus on. Behavior-based robot programming is an important tool in autonomous robotics because it can yield programs that are robust to uncertainty about exactly what environment the robots will face during execution. For this reason, verification of behavior-based robot programs has become a topic of interest [4] [5] [6], and we focus on that approach here. In recent work [7], we have integrated probabilistic methods with behavior-based approaches; this is the first time to our knowledge that a formal V&V method has been applied to such a system.

In research work for the *Defense Threat Reduction Agency*, we have developed an efficient approach to verification of behavior-based multi-robot software that includes a probabilistic environment model [8]. Rather than addressing purely computational verification problems such as absence of deadlock or absence of run-time errors [9] [10], or verifying software generated control signals without consideration of the physical platform [11], our work focuses on the interactions of the mission software with a complex and uncertain environment model. While verification approaches that leverage automated theorem proving and SMT frequently do employ models of the environment [12], in those approaches verification may not be completely automated, and uncertainty may not be included [13], whereas we have established both of these as requirements.

In this paper we address the problem of automatic verification of behavior-based software that includes a probabilistic localization component, for the first time to our knowledge. This is challenging because it would appear to be necessary to show that localization will generate an improved estimate of the actual physical location of the robot for *all* map geometries that offer sufficient information. Certainly this requires an environment model, separate from the software model, that includes the physical location of the robot, the geometry of the map, and the relationship between these and the sensor measurements. Uncertainty in physical location (at the least) needs to be modeled. However, verifying over all possible environment models, or even a sizeable subset of this deemed to have sufficient information for effective localization, is combinatorially challenging.

Our approach is somewhat different: We argue that the purpose of localization is to improve mission performance, and so our approach is to generate performance results for a behavior-based mission [7] with and without localization, thereby verifying whether including localization has been of value to the mission performance criteria. This is in direct contrast to just evaluating the accuracy of localization, without regard to whether it helped the mission in which it was included. Furthermore, while we are verifying any potential execution of the mission software, we verify all those potential executions for a single map. We will conducte mission verification using a map generated by a probabilistic algorithm.

The platform that we use for verification is the *MissionLab* mission design toolkit [15] with the *VIPARS* mission verification module [8]. Robot missions are constructed using the *MissionLab* GUI, and can be

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autotranslated [16] to the formal representation used in *VIPARS* for verification. We also close the loop by comparing verification results with experimental validation for the mission. In this paper, *MissionLab* is used to generate a mission that executes on a Pioneer 3-At robot equipped with SICK laser sensor running under *ROS* and using AMCL [17] for localization. We explore two ways to represent localization during verification. One approach just represents the functionality of localization at a high level. A second approach uses the actual ROS AMCL code during the verification process. Results for each of these approaches is presented and compared with experimental validation results.

II. System Architecture

As robots grow in complexity along with their task demands, so do the opportunities for their failures and the difficulty to foresee those failures. Poor judgments of robot capabilities have led to failures of many robotic systems [18]. Furthermore, critical emergency response missions are typically characterized by a stringent window of opportunity for successful action. Therefore, it is imperative that the performance of robotic systems be guaranteed before mission execution. The goal of our research is to provide such performance guarantees, which mission operators can use to make the appropriate decision regarding robot deployments. The result of our research effort is a verification framework VIPARS, which provides the performance guarantee for a given mission based on how well the specified performance criteria are satisfied by the given control program, robot, and the environment models.

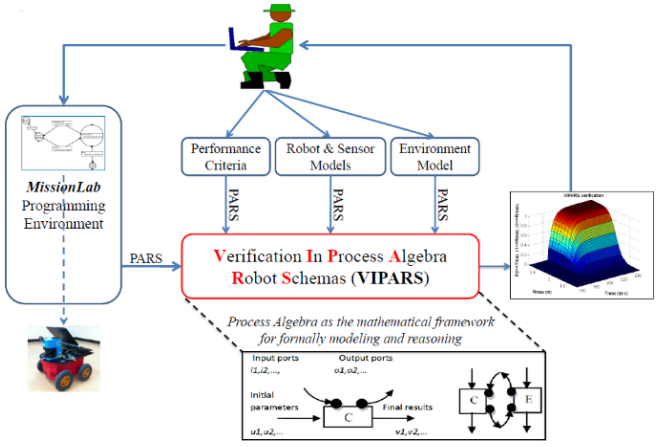


Figure 1: System Architecture (reproduced from [14])

The verification framework, VIPARS [8], is built upon *MissionLab* [15], a behavior-based robot mission specification environment (Fig. 1). *MissionLab* provides a usability-tested graphical programming interface, where the robot's program is specified in the form of a finite state automaton (FSA), assembled from a library of primitive behaviors. The output of VIPARS is the performance guarantee, currently quantified as probability distributions, that describes the likelihood of mission success. This output effectively forms a feedback loop that allows the mission operator to take preemptive measures against potential mission failures. While we have examined the performance guarantees of various robotic missions using VIPARS, this paper extends the capability of the verification framework to address the verification of probabilistic behaviors [7] – i.e., robot behaviors whose underlying algorithms are probabilistic (e.g., SLAM).

III. Environment Model for Localization

In prior work [8] [14] [16], Lyons et al. designed a probabilistic framework for verifying the performance of autonomous behavior-based robot missions in uncertain environments. The behavior-based mission is specified in *MissionLab* [15] and is translated from *MissionLab's* internal presentation to a *process-algebra* notation *PARS* (Process Algebra for Robot Schemas). Environment models are also processes in this notation and we proposed that a standardized set of environment models could be used to capture different classes of environment (e.g., motion uncertainty [8]; obstacle uncertainty [14]).

A. Automatic Verification with VIPARS

A behavior-based program and its environment is modeled in PARS as a set of interconnected, recurrent processes. Summarizing from [8]: a process $\boldsymbol{P}$ is written as:

$$\boldsymbol{P}\langle \boldsymbol{u_1}, \ldots, \boldsymbol{u_n}\rangle(\boldsymbol{i_1}, \ldots, \boldsymbol{i_j})(\boldsymbol{o_1}, \ldots, \boldsymbol{o_k})\langle \boldsymbol{v_1}, \ldots, \boldsymbol{v_m}\rangle \qquad (1)$$

where $u_1,\ldots,u_n$ are the initial values for the process variables, $i_1,\ldots,i_j$ and $o_1,\ldots,o_k$ are input and output port connections, and $v_1,\ldots,v_m$ are final result values of the process. Processes compute results from initial values, but may also be influenced by any communications that occur over port connections (points of interaction between a controller and its environment model). Process variables can be of a variety of data types and can be random variables.

Processes are defined compositionally as combinations of other processes using composition operators: parallel ('|'), disabling ('#') and sequential (';'). Bounded recursion is captured using tail-recursive (TR) process definitions, written for example:

$$\mathbf{P}\langle x\rangle \;=\; \mathbf{Q}\langle x\rangle\langle y\rangle\,;\mathbf{P}\langle y\rangle \qquad (2)$$

A variable *flow function* (f_P) is associated with each **P** that maps the values of variables at the start of each recursive step to those at the end. The flow-function for atomic processes are specified a-priori, and those for composite process are built up from the flow functions of components.

The system to be verified is expressed as the parallel, communicating composition (**Sys)** of robot controller (**Ctr)** and environment model processes, (**Env**) e.g.:

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{Sys}\langle r_1,r_2\rangle \;&=\; \mathbf{Ctr}\langle r_1\rangle(a)(b) \mid \mathbf{Env}\langle r_2\rangle(b)(a) \qquad (3)\\ &=\; \mathbf{Sys'}\langle r_1,r_2\rangle\,;\mathbf{Sys}\langle f_{Sys}(r_1,r_2)\rangle\end{aligned}$$

$$f_{Sys}(r_1,r_2) \;=\; (\, f_{Sys,r1}(r_1,r_2),\; f_{Sys,r2}(r_1,r_2)\,) \qquad (4)$$

In eq. (3), the input of **Ctr** is connected to the output of **Env**, (*a*), and the output of **Env** is connected to the input of **Ctr**, (*b*). In [8] we develop an interleaving theorem and associated algorithm *Sysgen* with linear computational complexity, by which the parallel, connected network of process on the top line of eq. (3) can be converted to the TR process on the second line, and from which *a system flow function*, e.g. (4), can be automatically extracted. When r_1 and r_2 are random variables, eq. (4) relates random values at time t to those at $t+1$. These are the basis of a Dynamic Bayesian Network (DBN) [19] used to carry out filtering, forward propagation of probability distributions.

$$f_{Sys,r1}(r_{1,t}, r_{2,t}) = P(r_{1,t+1} \mid r_{1,t}, r_{2,t}) \qquad (5)$$

Random variables are represented as multivariate mixtures of Gaussians, and operations on random variables are automatically translated by VIPARS into operations on distributions [20]. Although [8] discusses more complicated performance guarantees, we basically restrict our attention to the guarantee that a mission will achieve some criterion on environment variables (usually a spatial accuracy for a waypoint goal and/or a temporal requirement for achieving the mission) with probability greater than a threshold before a time-limit has expired. We demonstrated that this approach is fast and accurate when validated against physical executions (e.g., most recently [14]).

The system process **Sys** for the localization mission is shown in eq. (6).

$$\begin{aligned}\textbf{Sys} = (\ & \textbf{Mission}\,(clp, clh, cl)(cv) \quad | \\ & \textbf{Map}\langle sysmap\rangle()(cm) \quad | \\ & \textbf{Localization}\langle D0\rangle(cp,co,ch,cl,cm)(clp,clh) \quad | \\ & \textbf{MB\_Laser}\langle ms, mo, lo\rangle(cm,cp,ch)(cl)\ ) \quad | \\ & \textbf{Robot}\langle P0,H0\rangle(cv)(cp, ch, co)\ . \end{aligned} \tag{6}$$

The **Mission** process is the translation of the waypoint mission in Section II, and is fundamentally similar to all prior waypoint missions we have verified and validated. **Robot** is the environment model, capturing the motion and odometry error and interactions with obstacles, also fundamentally similar to our prior work.

However, there are three new processes: In the behavior-based localization approach [7], the obstacle avoidance 'sensor' gets its information from the map, rather than directly from measuring sensory input. **Map** makes mapping information available on its output *cm*; **MB_Laser** uses the map to generate map-based laser data on its output *cl*, and **Localization** implements a localization method using the map and laser inputs. The output of **Localization,** *clp*, is the localized position used by the **Mission** process. Thus the probabilistic map replaces the direct sensor measurements typically used in behavior-based control.

B. Map Representation

A key difference between this localization mission and prior missions to which we have applied our verification approach [8] [14] [16] is the map and the role in plays in the obstacle avoidance behavior and in localization. The **Map** process in (1) contains a map data structure. Variables in a PARS process definition can be random variables or variables with certain values. Random variables are represented as Mixtures of Gaussians distributions (MG). If $a \sim MG(CM)$, for $CM=\{(\mu_i, \Sigma_i, w_i) \mid i \in 1\ldots m\}$ the set of the mixture parameters (means, variances, weights), then a_i refers to mixture member $N(\mu_i, \Sigma_i)$, and $w(a_i)=w_i$ are the mixture weights, where $\sum_{i=1}^{m} w_i = 1$, and $CMG(x; CM)= \sum_{i=1}^{m} w_i N(x; \mu_i, \Sigma_i)$. The mixture size is written $|a| = m$.

Map information – the locations and geometry of obstacles, walls and other physical aspects of the mission environment – can be directly represented using this model. The interactions of the map with the robot and map-based 'sensor' is analyzed in VIPARS by measuring the overlap between random variable distributions [14]. The advantage of this approach to representing physical geometry is that there is no restriction on the spatial location or extent of obstacles, and finer precision of modeling can be obtained at the cost of adding more mixture members (Fig. 2).

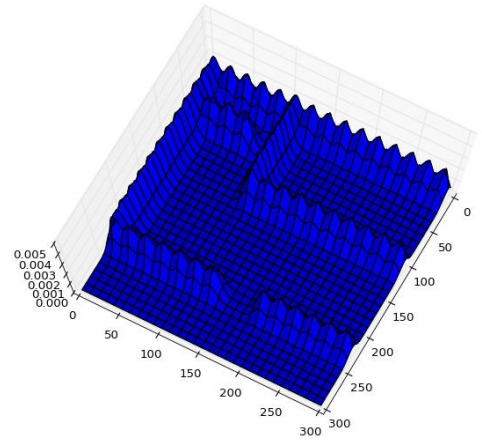


Figure 2: Example VIPARS Map Representation

An *indexed mixture of Gaussians* is a mixture of Gaussians distribution $a \sim MG(CM)$ together with an index set *I*. The mixture is restricted as follows:

- $a[x] \equiv a_i$ where $\mu(a_i) = x \in I,\ i \in 1\ldots m$.
- $\mu(a_i) \in I$, *for all* $i \in 1\ldots m$; *a* only contains members indexed by $\underline{I}$.
- For any $x \in I$, $|\{a[x]\}| \leq 1$; $\underline{a}$ has at most one member for each index.

We define $w[x]$ and $\Sigma[x]$ similarly to $a[x]$ to label member weights and covariances. A map is defined as a indexed bivariate mixture of Gaussians where $I=[0\ldots X]\times[0..Y]$ and where each member is a Gaussian kernel with covariance $\Sigma[x,y]=\sigma_m^2 I$, and where σ_m represents the map resolution. This corresponds somewhat intuitively with an occupancy grid representation, where $w[x,y]$ is related to probability of occupancy for the location (x,y).

During verification, the location random variable (the connection *cp* in (6)) represents the location of the robot for *all* possible executions. It's relevant to compare this with the representation of robot location in a localization algorithm: the representation there may be also be a random variable, but the interpretation is different. In any single execution, the robot can really only be at a *single* physical location; the localization distribution is an estimate of this. In verification, the objective is not to find the single most likely location, but to propagate the effects of being at all locations. Rather than using a ray trace algorithm to determine how each location is supported by sensor readings and refining the position estimate based on that, the ray trace algorithm is used by the **MB_Laser** process to gather *all* possible sensor readings that can arise due to the robot location distribution.

IV. MODELING LOCALIZATION

A common approach to verification is to manually implement the algorithm to be verified in a formal framework. Of course, this implementation may not represent the actual code; Published descriptions, even for widely known algorithms, have been shown to contain errors [21]. It also means that verification requires a huge investment of expertise and manpower [11]. Our prior work takes a

different approach: Mission designers work directly in the *MissionLab* design toolkit, and their software can be automatically translated to PARS [16]. The approach is predicated on being able to provide a library of atomic behaviors that have been expressed in PARS already. So, to include a localization behavior in verification, it is necessary to build a model of the *MissionLab* implementation in PARS. But this is basically following the same flawed verification approach just discussed. We use two new approaches to this problem and we will evaluate both in our validation trials.

The first approach involves modeling localization at a high level: modeling not the actual collection of sensory data that produces improved position estimates, but just position estimates that improve with time according to some parameterization. This has the advantage that different localization algorithms can be included in verification by just changing the parameterization, not requiring as many hours of expert effort as implementing a new localization algorithm directly in the formal framework. It has the disadvantage that it decouples the localization from predicted sensor measurements, and may miss the effect of measurements that greatly improve or degrade the localization estimate.

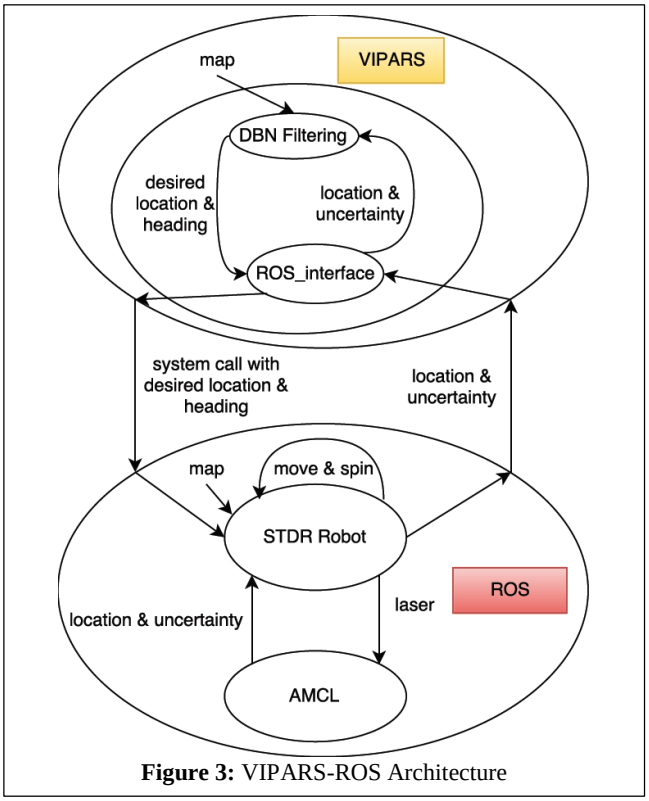


Figure 3: VIPARS-ROS Architecture

The second approach involves the incorporation of existing localization code *directly* into the VIPARS verification algorithm. The main difficulty here is that localization code is designed to execute a single instance of a robot mission, whereas VIPARS is probabilistically reasoning about all executions that are possible given the a-priori environment model information. Including existing code within a verification framework is possible in some model-checking tools – for example SPIN 4.0 allows C code to be embedded in a *Promela* model[1] and the code is executed as an atomic transition within SPIN. Our approach is to consider the embedded code to be capable of transforming a sample from a PARS random variable, and we define a framework for sampling and reconstructing variable distributions. This approach has the advantage of using the actual code that will get executed by the robot at run-time for the mission. It has the disadvantage of potentially lengthening verification times, since multiple samples need to be evaluated for a representative result.

A. *High-level Model Approach*

Localization starts with the odometry estimate of position at time step *t*, $q(t) \sim MG$. Through comparisons of sensory returns and the map, it refines the odometry estimate, bringing it closer to the actual position of the robot at time *t*, $p(t) \sim MG$. At any time, therefore the localization position is some combination of the odometry and the actual position:

$$\ell(t) = (1-k(t))\, p(t) + k(t)\, q(t) \qquad (7)$$

where $k(t) \in [0,1]$ is a time varying gain with $k(t_0)=1.0$, forcing localization to start with just the odometry estimate. The improvement of localization with time is modeled by a monotonic decreasing dynamics for *k*:

$$k(t+\Delta t) = t_c\, k(t) \qquad (8)$$

For time constant $t_c \in [0,1]$ determined from calibration measurements of the localization algorithm to be verified.

B. *Sampling Approach*

Consider that the C++ program (in fact, the ROS AMCL localization code) we want to add to a mission is **P**. A PARS process wrapper for **P** is built, so the code behaves like a 'black box' process $\mathbf{P}\langle x\rangle\langle y\rangle$. Then, like every PARS process, it has an associated flow function $f_P(x)=(y)$ which is calculated by VIPARS. However, when **P** is called, it will map one input value *x* to an output, *y*; only one possible execution of **P**, whereas verification has to check *all* possible executions. So this approach to embedding **P** doesn't work, but, embedded code can *only* be called in this way.

Our approach is to define an extension to the flow function f_P from the process/program **P**: the mixture extended flow function F_P takes a random variable *x* as input and produces a random variable **y** as output. It samples the input distribution *x* and calls f_P on the samples, and reconstructs the output distribution mixture $p(\, y \mid x\,) = F_P(\mathbf{x})$ from the result. This approach has the advantage of allowing existing code to be easily folded into PARS processes. It has the disadvantage of requiring multiple executions of the embedded code per verification step, and ultimately sample size and execution time will need to be weighed against desired accuracy.

Definition 1. Let $f_P(x)=y$ be the flow-function for the code to be embedded in verification, defined only by executing that code. Let $\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y} \sim MG(CM)$ be random variables over the type of the variables *x*, *y* which we denote *T*. The *mixture extended flow function* (MEF) F_P is defined as follows.

- f_P: $T \rightarrow T$, where $y=f_P(x)$, for $x, y \in T$,
- F_P: MG→MG, where $\mathbf{y} = F_P(\boldsymbol{x})$, for $\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y} \in$ MG (where MG is the set of all *MG*), and
- where we define $\mathbf{y}=\mathbf{x}$
- except $\mu(y_i) = f_P(\mu(x_i))$ for all x_i in $\boldsymbol{x}$, and
- where $\sigma(y_i)$ is calculated as follows:
  - $\mu'_j = f_P(s_i)$ for s_i a sample of the input x_i

[1] http://spinroot.com

- $\sigma(y_i) = \sum_{j=1}^{k} N(s_j; \mu(x_i), \sigma(x_i)) \left((\mu'_j - \mu(y_i))^2 \right)$

The MEF preserves number of members (|**y**|=|**x**|). Each mean is transformed directly $\mu(y_i) = f_P(\mu(x_i))$, requiring multiple executions of the embedded code. Finally, each variance is calculated by carrying out further sample executions for each member $\mu'_j = f_P(s_i)$.

C. Embedding ROS AMCL Localization

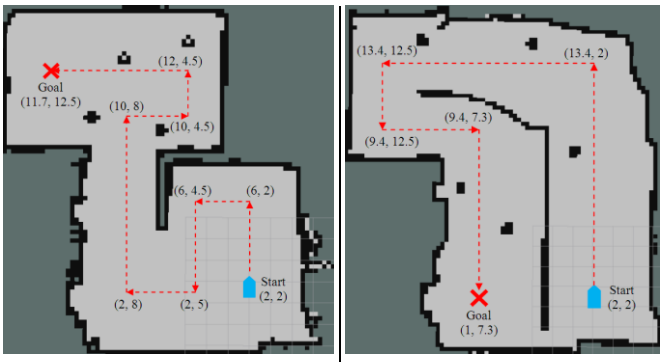
The localization algorithm used in this paper was Adaptive Monte Carlo Sampling (AMCL) [22] as implemented in ROS. In the sampling approach, the DBN filtering engine of VIPARS issued requests to a ROS-based AMCL server to evaluate the MEF function from Definition 1 for **Localization**. The interaction is shown in Fig. 3: Whenever the flow function for the **Localization** process needed to be evaluated on a position random variable, the position variable was sent from the DBN filtering engine (LHS, Fig. 3) via a pipe to a concurrently running ROS system (RHS, Fig. 3). The STDR simulator node was instructed to move the robot to the appropriate position, and localization data collected from the AMCL node. For simplicity, the MEF function was restricted to single member variables, and rather than calculating the variance by evaluating multiple samples, only the mean value was transformed and the variance calculated by convolving the mean with a zero-mean distribution $N(0, \sigma_s)$. This simplified the hysteresis issue with calling AMCL. The hysteresis challenge in fully implementing Definition 1 for AMCL is discussed in the Conclusion.

V. Verification and Validation

To assess the effectiveness of the verification in providing performance guarantees for probabilistic robot behaviors, we present two waypoint missions, where the robot is tasked to navigate through a series of waypoints toward a goal with behaviors that are based on probabilistic algorithms. The general assessment process consists of three steps: 1) verification – use VIPARS to generate a performance guarantee for the mission with respect to some specified performance criteria, 2) validation – conduct experimental trials of the mission with a real robot, 3) evaluation – compare the predicted performance generated by VIPARS with the actual performance of the robot.

The waypoint missions are illustrated in Figure 4. The mission proceeds with robot starting at (2, 2) and navigates by following a series of waypoint to the goal locations at (11.7, 12.5) and (1.0, 7.3) respectively for each mission. The behavior of the robot for *Mission-B* (Fig. 4a) is shown in Fig. 5, which was created in *MissionLab* in the form of a FSA. The robot FSA consists of a series of *GoToGuarded* and *Spin* behaviors, whose transitions are prompted by *AtGoal* and *HasTurned* triggers. The behavioral FSA for *Mission-A* is similar to the one shown in Fig. 5, and is omitted for brevity.

In contrast to the behaviors we had examined in our prior work, presently the behaviors have leveraged the probabilistic robotic algorithms to improve mission performance. However, these probabilistic behaviors present new verification challenges we have not addressed previously. Specifically, the perceptual schemas of *MoveToGuarded* and *AvoidObstacles*, two of the constituent primitive behaviors of the high-level *GoToGuarded* behavior, are augmented with a SLAM-based spatial map [7]. The *MoveToGuarded* primitive behavior drives the robot to a specified location with a radius of velocity dropoff around the goal. Instead of using odometry for localization, the perceptual schema of *MoveToGuarded* is replaced with the adaptive Monte Carlo localization (AMCL) algorithm [17]. This probabilistic localization algorithm takes the robot odometry and an a-priori acquired map as inputs, and outputs an estimated pose of the robot along with a covariance matrix representing the uncertainty of the estimated pose. Furthermore, the *AvoidObstacles* behavior uses the spatial map to generate repulsion vectors instead of using direct sensory reading from the laser scanner. The perceptual schema of the *AvoidObstacles* is modified to turn the spatial map into a pseudo laser scans of the environment through beam tracing within the occupancy map. As a result, the *GoToGuarded* behavior utilizes perceptual information (i.e., robot pose and obstacles) generated by probabilistic algorithms to generate motor response while navigating through the waypoints.



a. Waypoints Mission A b. Waypoints Mission B

Figure 4: Waypoint Missions for Verification and Validation

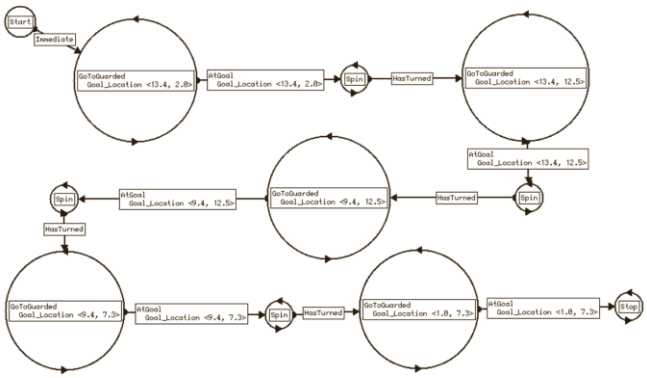


Figure 5: Behavioral FSA for *Mission-B*

Performance criteria are mission specifications that a robotic system needs to meet. The criteria for the waypoint missions are:

- R_{max} – maximum radius of spatial deviation allowed from the goal
- T_{max} – maximum allowable mission completion time

Moreover, each waypoint mission is considered successful only when both performance criteria are met. Thus, the overall mission success is defined as:

$$Success = (r \leq R_{max}) \text{ and } (t \leq T_{max}) \quad (9)$$

where r is the robot's relative distance to its goal location and t is the time the robot to finish a mission. The objective of VIPARS is then to verify how well these performance criteria are satisfied by the combination of the robot, its behavioral FSA, and the operating environment.

A. Verification

Both verification approaches were applied to both waypoint missions. For the high-level approach, **Localization** in eq. (6) implemented (7), (8) with the gain parameter from (8), $t_c = 0.99$. This value was empirically determined from experimentation ROS AMCL running on a Pioneer 3-AT robot carrying out short waypoint missions (not the same waypoint missions on which verification was performed).

The sample-based approach implemented the architecture of Figure 3 using ROS version Indigo. For implementation reasons, the AMCL parameter *min_update_d*[2] (translation required before update) was set differently between the real robot (validation) and the ROS STDR[3] robot (verification). During validation, it was set to the default value of 0.2, whereas in verification, it was set to 0.001. In the VIPARS-ROS system, requests are sent discretely to move the STDR robot to positions and localization updates requested immediately. Thus AMCL only updated per time step of the VIPARS DBN filtering. The update parameter only affects latency in this case.

A third, odometry only version of the mission was also run through verification for the purpose of comparing with both localization methods, and determining whether localization helped or hindered the mission. No additional validation was done on the odometry only version since that would replicate our prior work with verification of waypoint missions.

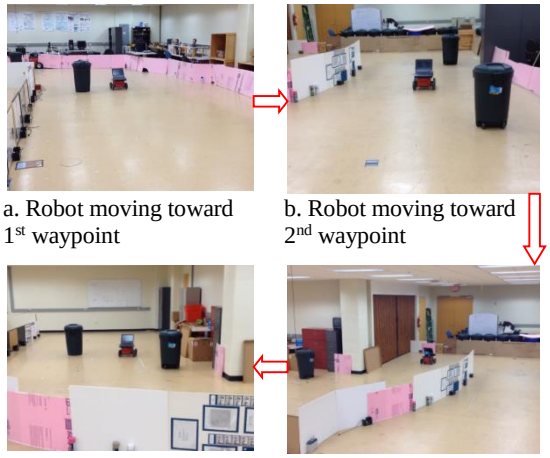
The results of carrying out verification using both approaches with both waypoint missions was a set of performance graphs (as described in [14]) showing the predicted performance of the missions with respect to the performance criteria (9).

B. Validation

Validation experiments of the waypoint missions are conducted to illustrate that VIPARS' predicted performance of the mission is consistent with the robot's actual performance. The robot used for the experimental trials is the Pioneer 3-AT, a four-wheeled skid-steered mobile robot. The robot is also equipped with a forward-facing SICK laser scanner. The complete validation experiment consists of 50 trial runs for each waypoint mission respectively, which resulted in a total of 100 trial runs. Snapshots of the waypoint mission B are shown in Figure 6. Mission success is defined by how well the performance criteria (9) are met. Thus, for each trial, the following performance variables were measured:

- t – Mission completion time
- r – Robot's relative distance to its goal location

[2] http://wiki.ros.org/amcl
[3] http://wiki.ros.org/stdr_simulator



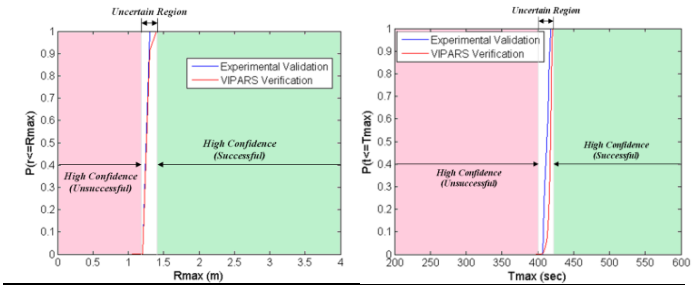
a. Robot moving toward 1st waypoint
b. Robot moving toward 2nd waypoint
d. Robot moving toward goal location
c. Robot after turning a corner

Figure 6: Snapshots of Validation for *Mission-B*

C. Verification vs. Validation (V&V)

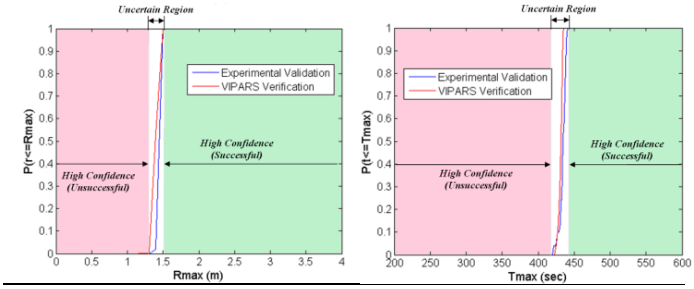
Verification and validation are conducted independently by our two research groups, and the results are not shared until the final comparison stage. Figure 7 shows the results of verification and validation of the waypoint missions. The performance guarantee is quantified as a probability distribution that represents the robot mission's likelihood for success. These results also serve as the basis for performance feedback; and how this information should ultimately be presented to the mission operator was investigated in our recent human subjects study [23].

Figure 7 shows the validation results of the performance guarantees for the two waypoint missions. These results are obtained with the sampling-based model of the probabilistic localization as described in Section IV. Figs. 7a and 7c show the V&V results for the spatial criteria $P(r \leq R_{max})$, the probability that the robot arrives within R_{max} radius of its goal location. Figs. 7b and 7d show the comparisons for the time criteria $P(t \leq T_{max})$, the probability that the waypoint mission is completed under the time limit, T_{max}. The results illustrate that the VIPARS verification of performance guarantees are consistent with the outcomes from experimental validation. The V&V results can be divided into three regions for further interpretation: *High Confidence (Unsuccessful)*, *Uncertain*, and *High Confidence (Successful)* regions. The *High Confidence (Unsuccessful)* is the region of near zero verification error and the mission has a zero probability of success. The *Uncertain* region is the region where verification error is significantly greater than zero and the probability of mission success is between 0 and 1.0. As a result, the robot is not guaranteed to succeed with the mission. The *High Confidence (Successful)* is region of near zero verification error and the mission is guaranteed to succeed with probability of 1.0. Consequently, the mission operator's decision for robot deployment can be based on which region of the mission criteria fall into. For instance, if the specified performance criterion falls within the *Unsuccessful* region (e.g., R_{max}=0.5m), the operator can either abort the mission or modify mission parameters (e.g., design a new robot controller).



a. Mission A Spatial Criterion $P(r \leq R_{max})$

b. Mission A Time Criterion $P(t \leq T_{max})$



c. Mission B Spatial Criterion $P(r \leq R_{max})$

d. Mission B Time Criterion $P(t \leq T_{max})$

Figure 7: Results of VIPARS Verification and Experimental Validation of Spatial and Time Performance Criteria for Waypoint Missions A and B. Figures 6a & 6b show the V&V results of spatial and time performance respectively for Mission-A, where the results are divided into three regions based the performance guarantees: *High Confidence (Unsuccessful)*, *Uncertain*, and *High Confidence (Successful)*. Figures 6c and 6d show the V&V results of Mission-B.

The overall mission success (Eq. 4) is defined in terms of both spatial and time criteria. Thus, we examined further in Figs. 8 and 9 the effects of various combinations of spatial and time criteria (R_{max} and T_{max}) on the mission success and verification error. The results can also be used to answer queries regarding the performance guarantee for a specific combination of T_{max} and R_{max}. Fig. 8 shows the effects of the time criterion T_{max} on the V&V results of the spatial criterion $P(r \leq R_{max})$ for *Mission A*. While the T_{max}'s in both of its high confidence regions (Fig. 7b) have no effect on the verification error for $P(r \leq R_{max})$, T_{max}'s that are in the *Uncertain* region (e.g., T_{max}= 415 sec) incur significant verification errors. For instance, for T_{max}=415sec, VIPARS predicted a success probability of 0.18, while the robot was actually successful 76% of the time in experimental trials.

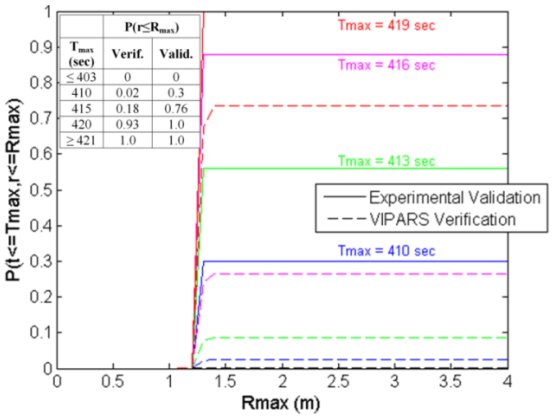


Figure 8: V&V of Spatial Criterion at various T_{max} for *Mission A*

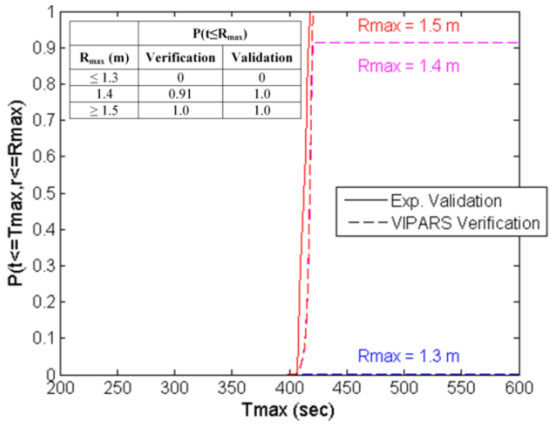


Figure. 9: V&V of Time Criterion at various R_{max} for *Mission A*

Fig. 9 shows the effects of the spatial criterion R_{max} on the V&V results of the time criterion $P(t \leq T_{max})$. While similar observations can be made here as in Fig. 8, in this case, R_{max}'s have much less impact on the verification error of $P(t \leq T_{max})$ due to VIPARS's accuracy in predicting the spatial performance of mission even in the uncertain region (as shown in Fig. 7a). Nonetheless, missions with performance criteria in the *Uncertain* regions should generally be avoided.

Lastly, we have also examined the different verification results of VIPARS based on how the probabilistic localization mechanism is modeled: sampling-based and high-level model-based (as described previously in Section IV). Moreover, these results are also compared to the verification result for the case when only odometry information is used for localization. The odometry-only version was 100% unsuccessful during verification; conclusive proof that localization is an asset to the mission. Just for the purpose of comparison, odometry-only graphs were generated with VIPARS ignoring obstacle collisions. These verification results are shown in Figs. 10-11 along with the validation result for *Mission-A*. While the verification results for different localization modeling approaches are comparable for the time criterion (Fig. 10), the performance guarantee based on the sampling-based model is more closely aligned with the validation result for both spatial and time criteria.

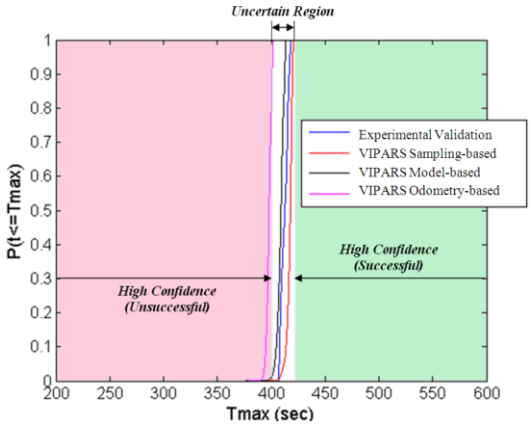


Figure 10: V&V of Time Criterion and Models of Localization

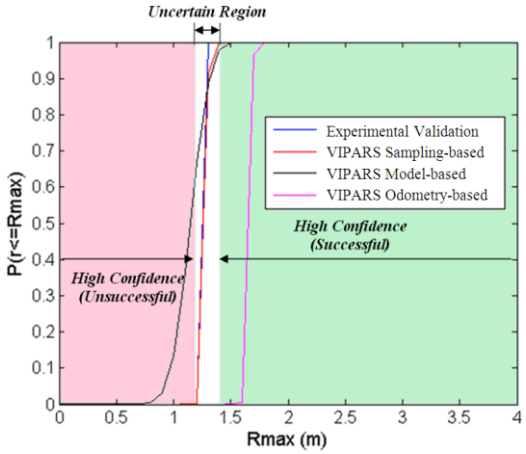


Figure 11: V&V of Spatial Criterion and Models of Localization

VI. CONCLUSION

Localization and mapping techniques intuitively offer advantages for robots navigating in unknown environments. This paper has applied our work in the design and verification of autonomous behavior based robot missions to the problem of determining whether there is a mission-specific benefit to using localization, that is, whether the mission is carried out better because of localization. The *MissionLab*/VIPARS mission design and verification approach was extended to handle two approaches to modeling localization: a high-level approach in which only position estimate improvement is modeled, and a sample-based approach, in which the run-time localization code is embedded in verification. Extensive experimental validation is reported for two different waypoint missions using localization. The discussion of Figures 10 and 11 indicates that the sample-based approach yields the more accurate estimate, even for the sampling simplification made in this paper. Furthermore, VIPARS provides conclusive support (Fig. 11) for the initial intuition that localization was an asset to mission performance by predicting 100% failure of the non-odometry mission.

To completely implement the mixture extended function of Definition 1 for the sampling-based approach, the full motion history for each sample request would need to be sent to the STDR node and AMCL reset between samples. The ability to cache these multiple sensory histories would improve computation time, but at the cost of directly instrumenting AMCL – a step we were avoiding for reasons discussed in the paper.

Future work will involve applying MissionLab/VIPARS to heterogeneous missions that include characterizing human operators, and application of VIPARS to the autogeneration of missions

VII. REFERENCES

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